



# **Negative frequency-dependent selection for rewarding species: a combination of natural condition data and agent-based modeling**

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**possible titles**

should contain:

- Frequency dependence (negative frequency dependence), frequency dependent pollination, frequency dependent selection
- model /agent-based model/ simulation/ foraging model /model data
- natural field condition/ field data/ natural condition /

and maybe something like:

- drivers, reasons, explanation, consistent, coincide, causes, depend, understand
- co-flowering plants, shared pollination, coexistence
- non-linear, sigmoid, cubic

**ideas...**

- Negative frequency dependent selection consistent for rewarding species in natural condition and simulation data
- Frequency dependent pollination: nonlinear relationship consistent in field and model data
- Understand frequency dependence: Results consistent in natural field conditions and agent-based modeling
- Reasons for positive and negative frequency dependent selection
- Drivers of frequency dependent pollination in natural field condition and agent-based modeling
- Frequency Dependence in natural field conditions and agent-based modeling
- Spatial distribution and cover as limited drivers of flower frequency dependence
- possible causes for frequency dependent pollination of co-flowering plants
- Negative frequency dependence coincide in natural conditions and simulation experiment
- Sigmoidal frequency dependence consistent in natural field condition and foraging model

**Keywords:**

- frequency / frequency-dependent
- reproductive success /pollen
- plant-density /density
- flower constancy
- pollinator behavior / foraging behavior
- plant-pollinator interactions
- shared pollination
- coexistence
- spatially-explicit modeling /spatial model / models / individual-based model /agent-based model
- nectar production-rates
- patchy environment

# 1 Introduction

## Frequency-dependence

Frequency-dependence (FD) of survival or reproduction is defined as relative fitness of a species as a function of its frequency in the community (Ayala and Campbell, 1974; Wright and Dobzhansky, 1946). According to ecological theory, frequency dependency could have far-ranging consequences for species coexistence and the maintenance of diversity. Negative frequency dependence occurs if the fitness of a phenotype increases if it is rare and is thought to increase diversity. In the case of plant-pollinator-interactions, negative FD describes the preference of pollinators for the rare flower types which can result in a stable polymorphic equilibrium and an increase in floral diversity. Positive frequency dependence on the other hand describes in an increased fitness for common phenotype. Hence, a higher pollination success for common flower types which tends to reduce diversity in modeling studies (May 1974, but see Bever 1999, Molofsky and Bever 2002). For animal-pollinated plant species, optimal foraging theory predicts that under most circumstances pollinators should favor common flower types over rarer ones (Kunin and Iwasa, 1996). While the positive effect of density dependence for pollination success is well studied (e.g. Essenberg 2012; Bernhardt et al. 2008; Kunin 1993; Morris et al. 2010, frequency dependence has rarely been tested.

## Literature

Previous studies of frequency-dependent pollination cover laboratory, field and modeling experiments.

In the review by Smithson (2001), 11 of 13 lab experiments using artificial flowers on a "bee-board" showed significant results for frequency dependence. 10 of those were done with rewarding flowers and resulted in positive frequency dependence(Smithson and Macnair, 1996, 1997)). The only experiment resulting in negative frequency dependence was done with non-rewarding flowers (Smithson and MacNair, 1997).

The few field experiments on frequency dependence are either wholly or partly manipulative and concentrate on color morphisms. Epperson and Clegg (1987) found the rare white morph of *Ipomoea purpurea* to be undervisited (but not the colored morphs) and Gigord et al. (2001) proved negative frequency-dependent selection in the rewardless orchid *Dactylorhiza sambucina*, both supporting the lab experiments. However, Eckhart et al. (2006) was the first to prove negative frequency dependence for a rewarding species (*C. xantiana* ssp. *xantiana*) and other studies had no significant results (eg. Jones 1996; Mogford 1978). Experiments on natural flower communities lack completely to our knowledge.

While foraging models are comparatively common, few investigate frequency dependence. The game-theoretic model by Kunin and Iwasa (1996) suggests pollinators should favor common flower types over rarer ones when resources availability is high. The similar mathematical model of Song and Feldman (2014) also concentrates on the pollinator perspective by applying rules of optimal foraging strategy and observe under which conditions the pollinators are able to maximize their net energy intake. The only spatial explicit model focusing on frequency dependent pollination is Hanoteaux et al. (2013) who addressed the survival rates of less attractive species over multiple generations.

## Gap in knowledge/ Problem

Previous research on FD is scarce and inconsistent between lab, field and simulation data. All field experiments were partly or fully manipulated studies on color morphs. Eckhart et al. (2006) was the first to study a rewarding species and to include natural frequencies. Still, rewarding flowers are underrepresented and studies of natural flower communities lack completely. Furthermore, direct comparison of model and field data to cross-validate findings were only done for related questions such as density effects (Essenberg, 2012) and the learning abilities of bees (Dyer et al., 2014) but never for FD.

Next to the yet not fully proven existence of FD are its influencing factors which can be responsible for differing results of previous research. Smithson (2001) hypothesized in her review about possible reasons but until now, no study was conducted to fill the knowledge gap.

Floral cover is known to influence the foraging behavior of pollinators (eg. Kunin 1993; Essenberg 2012). However, a possible interaction with frequency dependence was not considered in most cases. Exceptions were

Smithson and Macnair (1997) who observed visitation rates for densities between 5 an 10% in their lab experiment without any significant result and Kunin and Iwasa (1996) and Song and Feldman (2014) who included density as factor in their mathematical model. Field experiments generally lack cover analysis.

The influence of spatial structure and distribution of flowers is not well studies (but:habitat fragmentation) although flowers typically exist in patchy distributions of various sizes. Usually, the proportion of flowers visited by bees decline with increasing cluster size, probably due to limited memory structure and the avoidance of previously visited flowers (Goulson, 2000). Geslin et al. (2014) also found the foraging behavior of bumble bees (*Bombus terrestris*) affected by the spatial distribution of two co-flowering species in a controlled lab experiment. The only study about spatial distribution of flowers in the context of frequency dependence was done by Hanoteaux et al. (2013). Their spatially explicit model included four levels of flower agglomeration which significantly influenced the survival rate of the less attractive species (best survival rates: high cluster for low frequencies, low cluster for high frequencies).

## **My approach/Questions**

In this thesis I want to address the following questions:

1. Does frequency dependence selection of pollinators also exist for rewarding species in natural floral communities?
2. What kind of a frequency-dependent relationship can be found?
3. What are important factors influencing frequency dependence?

I observed the per-flower visitation rates to five different flowering plant species within natural grassland plant communities on the area of the Jena Experiment. Observations were made over a range of natural frequencies, floral cover and species richness. To explore the important factors influencing frequency dependence I developed a spatially explicit agent-based model (ABM). The autonomous agents respond with set foraging behavior rules to changing frequency, cover and clustering values for two rewarding co-flowering plant species sharing pollination services. Subsequently, the results of the model were compared to field data to understand underlying rules for FD.

## 2 Natural Field Condition

### 2.1 Methods

#### Study Site

The data used in this analysis were collected in the area of the Jena-Experiment, located north of the city of Jena in the middle of Germany ( $N50^{\circ}55' E11^{\circ}35'$ ; 130 m a.s.l.). Mean annual temperature is  $9.3^{\circ}\text{C}$  and mean annual precipitation 578mm (Kluge et al., 2000). In 2002, 10ha of strongly fertilized arable field in a floodplain of the Saale river were converted into a biodiversity experiment. Species mixes of 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 16 and 60 species from a pool of 60 common European grassland species were sown in 82 plots a  $20\text{m} \times 20\text{m}$  (Roscher et al., 2004). The Jena Experiment has the purpose to explore the effect of plant diversity (species richness and functional group richness) in grassland communities and is object to numerous studies and experiments.

The plots of the Jena Experiment are mowed twice a year in accord to standard grassland management. Parts of each plot are additionally weeded twice a year to maintain the original plant composition. Two subplots were excluded from the weeding since 2002 ("Old Invasion Plots",  $4\text{m} \times 5.5\text{m}$ ,  $22\text{m}^2$ ) and since 2009 ("New Invasion Plots",  $5\text{m} \times 3.5\text{m}$ ,  $17.5\text{m}^2$ ) to evaluate invasive potential and effects. Subplots with continuous weeding were scarce with flowers and had a generally low species richness. Hence I collected the data in the old and new invasion plots with a higher cover, species richness and diversity. From the 82 plots of the Jena Experiment I only included plots with a floral cover between 20% and 70% for better comparison. In total, 23 plots were sampled throughout this study.

#### The Sampling

I selected the focal plant species during the field work as the flora changed very quickly. A focal species had to be flowering for at least one week in the sampling time and be present in at least five plots with a differing frequency to get sufficient data. Therefore, I chose *Lathyrus pratensis*, *Lathyrus pratensis*, *Trifolium pratense* and *Onobrychis viciifolia* of the family Fabaceae and *Geranium pratense* of the family Geraniaceae (Supplementary material, tab. S1).

Pollinator observations were only made during suitable weather conditions (maximum partly overcast, maximum light wind, min.  $15^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). The sampling took place between 9am and 5pm. Overall, 15 days between 20th of July and 12th of August 2014 were suitable for pollinator observations. Per observation I recorded all pollinator activity during 15 minutes in a  $80\text{cm} \times 80\text{cm}$  subplot. This size is feasible to watch even with high pollinator activity and floral cover. The documentation included all visits to flowers of the focal plant species and accumulated visitation number for all other flowers in the subplot. I counted the flowers of the focal species to calculate the per-flower visitation rate. As possible drivers for visitation rate changes, I estimated the floral cover and identified all other flowering plant species present on subplot and plot level. Each plot contained eight evenly distributed subplots for 2h observation time per focal species and frequency.

#### Statistical Analysis

Per-flower visitation rate is an effective response variable for analyzing the effect of frequency dependence. It is calculated as followed:

$$VR_i = \frac{\sum V_i}{\sum F_i}$$

With  $VR_i$  being the per-flower visitation rate of species  $i$ ,  $V_i$  the count of all visits to a flower with species  $i$  within 15 minutes and  $F_i$  a flower of species  $i$  within the subplot. Therefore, the response variable is no count data and was treated with a Gaussian error distribution in the analysis. The explanatory variables of the beyond optimal model include species richness, floral cover and frequency as single, quadratic and cubic term with and without interaction with species, all on the plot level and as continuous variable. Species was included as nominal

response variable. All statistical analysis was performed with R, version 3.1.2. (R Core Team, 2014).

I used variance inflation factors (VIF) to check whether any variables in the dataset are collinear and should be removed prior to the analysis. With all values below two, there was no sign for collinearity and therefore OK to use them in the model selection as explanatory variables (Zuur et al. 2007, supplementary material, tab. S2). Pairwise scatterplots with included correlation of coefficients also showed only minor correlation (Supplementary material, fig. S2).

The sampling design contained 8 observations per plot summing up to 2h of observations per species and frequency. Therefore, the data are not independent and I chose a linear mixed effect model with subplot nested in plot as random effect. I used the function "lme" from the R package "nlme" (Pinheiro et al., 2014) for all further analysis.

The beyond optimal model with the full set of reasonable predictors and interactions showed a strong pattern of heteroscedasticity in the residuals. With the varIdent-function from the R-package "nlme", every species is allowed to have its own variance structure and we can maintain the differences in attractiveness of the five focal species in the model as biological information. The weighting provided a significantly better variance structure for the model ( $L = 383.74$ ,  $df = 4$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ).

I performed a backward stepwise deletion of interactions and predictors with maximum likelihood estimation (ML) for each model. The loss of explanatory power in the model after removal of a variable was tested by comparing the Akaike information criterion (AIC) of the model with and without the explanatory variable (ANOVA model comparison). If there was no significant loss of explanatory power, the variable was removed. The selection was verified by a global selection via the dredge-function from the R-package "MuMin" (Barton, 2014) with maximum likelihood estimation.

The final model was again validated by plotting the normalized residuals against fitted values. The vertical gap in the residuals can be explained by the difference in flower attractiveness. *Geranium pratense* and *Onobrychis viciifolia* got very high visitation rates whereas *Trifolium pratense*, *Lotus corniculatus* and *Lathyrus pratensis* had generally only few visits. However, the heteroscedasticity of residuals could be dealt with by the weighting and the mean of the residuals is close to zero (< 0.0001, supplementary material fig. S3).

## 2.2 Results

### Visitation Rates

In total, I made 385 observations, each represents pollinator activity records for 15min in a 80cm x 80cm plot. Accumulated, I analyzed data from 96,25h of observation on 246.4m<sup>2</sup>.

*Onobrychis viciifolia* was the most attractive plant with a maximum of 318 visits in one observation. The per-flower visitation rate (counted visits to all flowers divided through the number of flowers of the focal plant species in the subplot) varied strongly with the attractiveness of the focal species. Per observation, I recorded  $1.4 \pm 1.8$  ( $\pm$  SD) visits per flower with a maximum of 10.7 visits per flower (again *Onobrychis viciifolia*) and 31 observation with no visit at all to the focal species. The per-flower visitation rate was significantly different between the two very attractive species *Geranium pratense* and *Onobrychis viciifolia* and the three less attractive species *Trifolium pratense*, *Lotus corniculatus* and *Lathyrus pratensis* ( $P \leq 0.001$ , tab. 1). The subplots contained  $3 \pm 1.2$  ( $\pm$  SD) flowering species including the focal species, the species richness was higher on plot level with  $8 \pm 2.4$  ( $\pm$  SD) flowering species.

### Frequency Dependence

Floral cover and species richness had both individually and in the interaction term with frequency no effect on the visitation rate and were removed from the model (Cover:  $F_{df=1} = 1.17$ ,  $P = 0.28$ ; Species Richness:  $F_{df=1} = 1.15$ ,  $P = 0.29$ ).

The linear mixed effect model shows an effect of species and frequency individually and with interactions on the per-flower visitation rate (Species:  $F_{df=4} = 141.13$ ,  $P \leq 0.0001$ ; Frequency:  $F_{df=1} = 18.29$ ,  $P \leq 0.0001$ ; Species x Frequency  $F_{df=4} = 5.2$ ,  $P \leq 0.001$ , tab. 2). Interestingly, frequency contributes also as quadratic and cubic term with its interactions to species explanatory power to the model, giving the relationship a non-linear character (Tab. 2). Figure 1 shows the third degree polynomial relationship of all focal species and the summed data except *Lathyrus pratensis* which has a quadratic relationship. The sigmoid curve is defined by a strong increase for frequencies below 20% followed by a minimum between 50 and 80% depending on the species before raising again with increasing dominance of the focal species. However, the visitation rate of *Lathyrus pratensis* presents a maximum at 60% frequency and decreases afterwards.

## 3 Agent-Based Foraging Model

### 3.1 Methods

Agent-Based Models ("ABM", also known as Individual-Based Models "IBM") are a valuable tool for assessing interactions in dynamic networks like financial markets, game theory, spread of diseases or, like this case, ecosystems. The model contains multiple agents which behave independently after given behavior rules and are able to interact with the environment and each other. Agent-based models are especially suitable for analyzing behavior shifts with changing environmental conditions (eg. nectar reward or flower quantity).

ABMs got important and popular throughout various research areas including ecology and evolutionary biology (DeAngelis and Mooij, 2005). Also foraging models grew in number over the last years addressing a broad range of research questions. Dornhaus et al. (2006) looked at the benefits of a recruitment system and colony sizes. Faruq et al. (2013) compared the foraging success while applying different flower colors by varying the wavelengths over time. Bukovac et al. (2013) simulated the difference between the parallel visual scan of honey bees and the serial visual scan of bumble bees to for the ability to avoid distractions during foraging. The ABM of Hanoteaux et al. (2013) showed reproduction success of plants with unequal attraction to the pollinator.

The combination of an ABM with experimental data is a rare but promising approach. The fist to apply this method in foraging models was Dyer et al. (2014). They trained honey bees in a lab experiment to fine color discrimination to check for their flexibility to change when the reward changes between flower types. Afterwards, Dyer et al. (2014) confirmed the findings with a ABM.

I used NetLogo (Wilensky, 1999) as programming environment. It is a simple but powerful tool for making ABMs and connectible with R through the R-package "RNetLogo" (Thiele et al., 2012).

#### Assumptions

The model was developed on empirical findings for foraging rules and pollinator behavior. It is a simple spatial model of two co-flowering plant species competing over pollination service.

In the model, all pollinators (from now on called "bee-agents") are identical and the two flower types only differ in their initial species identity. Reward regrowth, handling times to extract the reward and its attractiveness towards the bee-agents is identical for both species. Corolla color is only assigned for better visualization and is not important for the model or the bee-agents, respectively. All bee-agents behave under the theory of flower constancy which is empirically tested and proven for various pollinators (e.g. HILL et al. (1997) for honeys bees, Chittka et al. (1997) for bumble bees, Goulson and Wright (1998) for hoverflies and Goulson et al. (1997) for the butterfly *Thymelicus flavus*). Flower constancy is the tendency of a pollinator to keep visiting the same flower species instead switching to more rewarding or closer species (Chittka et al., 1999; Waser, 1986). Because we are interested in the visitation rate of flowers in different frequencies, the energetic costs and the limit of gained rewards of the bee-agents are ignored. Furthermore, they do not communicate and always empty a flower completely.

#### Model Environment

In NetLogo, the "world" is a spatial grid with a set number of cells called patches. Agents are not spatially explicit and can move freely over the patches according to their given behavior rules. Patches and agents both have own properties and can interact with each other. In my model, the "meadow" has 100x100 grid cells with horizontally and vertically wrapping to avoid edge effects. Every grid cell can either contain a single flower of one of the two species or grass. The flowers are randomly distributed over the meadow. Figure 2 gives a set of exemplary model environments with changing environmental conditions. Floral cover is defined as the percentage of the patches being flowers and the cluster number equals the average number of flowers within a flower agglomeration. Cluster can vary in the amount of flowers and shape to create a more natural meadow.

Every flower contains 1 Joule of reward in the beginning of each simulation run. The bee-agents are randomly distributed over the modeling environment, no hive is assigned and start without a fixed preference for a flower type but just pick the closest one when the simulation starts. Every tick in NetLogo equals one second.

## Behavior Rules

All bee-agents act independently from each other after given foraging behavior shown in Figure 3 (Overview of all parameters used for the model with its default settings in the supplementary material in tab. S4).

As mentioned in the assumptions, the behavior of the bee-agents is strongly influenced by the theory of flower constancy ( e.g. Bobisud and Neuhaus, 1975; Chittka et al., 1997; Thomson, 1981; Chittka et al., 1999; Goulson, 1994, 1999). Bee-agents are always in favor of one of the two flowering species and forage exclusively on this species. The preference can change due to lack of searching success and a series of low rewards of the preferred flower (Chittka et al., 1997; Kunin, 1993; Greggers and Menzel, 1993). Pollinators avoid recently visited flowers (Goulson, 1999). Every bee-agent is equipped with a memory to remember the location of the last four already visited flowers (Goulson, 2000). The bee-agent can either search for a flower or visit one.

### Search

If there is any preferred and unvisited flower in sight, the searching bee-agent moves on direct way towards the flower, otherwise it continues searching.

Previous research on the speed of foraging pollinators by Essenberg (2012) and Kunin (1991) (in Kunin and Iwasa 1996) gives 0.1m/sec as benchmark. Sequentially, bee-agents can move as fast as 1 grid cell per tick in this model. The vision of pollinators was studied in various experiments using a Y-maze apparatus (Dyer et al., 2008; Wertlen et al., 2008; Ne'eman and Kevan, 2001). Every bee-agent can detect flowers from a distance of 0.7m with an equivalent of 6 grid cells. The vision is reduced to a 180° cone-shaped field to the front of the agent. Pollinators tend to keep their direction while foraging (Waddington, 1980). In the model, I used a correlated random walk (CRW) to achieve a relatively natural movement (Bartumeus et al., 2005; Codling et al., 2008; Pyke and Cartar, 1992; Viswanathan et al., 2008). Empirical studies have shown a higher probability to abandon the original flower preference the longer the search remains unsuccessful (Chittka et al., 1997; Kunin, 1993). If the bee-agent searches for 5 seconds (= 5 ticks) without finding any preferred and unvisited flower, the likelihood of changing its preference increases by 10% with every additional tick.

### Visit and Reward Intake

When a bee-agent encounters a preferred and unvisited flower it takes up all its reward. The maximal reward a flower can contain is 1 Joule and refills each tick by a linear function ("reward-function", see tab. S4). The handling time involves three components: a time proportional to the amount of taken reward, a reward-independent constant and a skill factor (Kunin and Iwasa, 1996). In my model, a bee-agent requires 4 seconds to extract one Joule of reward plus a reward-independent handling time of 0.5 seconds. When the bee-agent just changed its flower preference it gets a 3 second penalty for inexperience (Roubik 1992 in Kunin and Iwasa 1996).

The reward taken is stored in the agent-own reward-memory. Every agent can remember the last four received rewards. When visiting a flower, the bee-agent compares this memory with the current reward quantity. If the reward is less than half the average in the memory, the likelihood to abandon flower constancy and visit another species next increases by 10%. If the reward is exceptionally good (double of the remembered average), the change probability is set to zero (Chittka et al., 1997; Keasar et al., 1996).

The maximal number of visits within a successful pollination is determined by the pollen-carryover parameter and can have a value between 1 and 16. The lower the value the stronger the heterospecific pollen interference ( Campbell 1986; Benadi et al. 2012, Montgomery 2009).

After reward-collection is completed, the bee-agent updates its flower-memory and its reward-memory and continues foraging. Each visit and successful pollination is recorded for later analysis.

## Simulation experiments

Parameters altered in the main analysis are frequency, floral cover, degree of clustering and pollen-carryover rate. Each parameter-combination was run 20 times with a length of 1000 ticks each (110,400 runs in total).

Additionally, I performed a sensitivity analysis with parameters which can change the behavior of the bee-agents to understand drivers of the model. Table 3 presents the definition and value range of the parameters.

## 3.2 Results

### Per-flower visitation rate

The per-flower visitation shows a similar cubic function as the data collected in the Jena Experiment (Fig. 4A,B). Within the first 20% there is a steep increase in visits per flower. Afterwards, additional gain of visits is for all cover values above 5% not proportional with the increase of flowers due to higher frequency, the per-flower visitation drops with a minimum around 80%. Towards 100%, when the species gets exclusive, the per-flower visitation rises again. Cover and cluster both influence the frequency dependence. The higher the cover, the lower the per-flower visitation and the bigger the cluster the less visible is the frequency dependence. Simulations with more than 10 flowers per cluster show a high variance for frequencies below 10% and very low to no frequency dependence afterwards (Fig. 4C,D).

The same data is plotted as proportion of visits to species A to take the variance in the sum of visits into account (Fig. 4E-H; see section "Global visitation"). It shows a clear negative frequency dependence favoring the rare species. Below 50%, species A gets more visits than would be proportional, above 50% the curve is mirrored because both species are identical in the simulation and the common species gets unproportional few visits. The higher the cover, the stronger is the frequency dependence. For higher cluster values, all data points approach a frequency independent relationship (Fig. 4H).

### Pollination ratio

The pollen-carryover rate is defined as maximum number of visits within a successful pollination can take place. In the model, I tested values from 1 (strong heterospecific pollen interference) to 16 (weak heterospecific pollen interference). Figure 5 gives the proportion of all visits where a successful pollination took place. The first 20% frequency are crucial for all parameter-value combination. A very steep increase up to 80% successful pollinated flowers is followed by a moderate linear increase up to 100% for exclusive existence. The pollen-carryover rate only makes a difference for small cover and cluster values (Fig. 5a). The higher the cover and the bigger the cluster, the better is also the proportion of successful pollination, even for small frequencies, independent of the pollen-carryover rate (Fig. 5c,f,g-i).

### Sensitivity analysis

Aim of the sensitivity analysis is the understanding of the underlying behavior parameters on the outcome of the model. Therefore, pollinator density, reward regrowth, search time and vision were tested for a (unnaturally) broad range of values and analyzed as proportional data to check for difference to the empirically founded default values. Vision, search time and the number of bees on the meadow influence the sum of visits (Fig. S5). A higher vision leads to more visits in a saturated curve, the search limit reduces the number of visits and more bees lead again to more visits per time unit. The reward function has only for a very high regrowth rate a small negative influence on the total number of visits.

### Global visitation

The sum of visits are not evenly distributed for all frequency stages (Fig. 6). A strong cover-dependent pattern is visible for small cluster values. The visits have a u-shaped relationship for 5% cover and a fourth-degree polynomial function for higher cover values. The visitation drops to a minimum at 90:10 ratio and peaks again for balanced frequencies. Cluster reduce the frequency dependence.

Note that the absolute visitation numbers vary additional to the shape for cover and cluster values. Both parameters have a frequency independent influence on the visitation rate (supplementary material, fig. S4). Floral cover shows a Hollings type II functional response saturated at 30% and the visits for degree of clustering have a hump-shaped relationship with a peak at an intermediate agglomeration level of 5-10 flowers per cluster.

### **Reward regrowth**

Only a considerably high regrowth rate (0.1J/sec, yellow line in fig. S6) has a reversing effect on the frequency dependence: Rare species get unproportionally few visits whereas common species benefit from a positive frequency dependence. The influence is less severe with increasing cluster size.

### **Pollinator vision distance**

Every bee-agent can detect flowers in a  $180^\circ$  cone-shaped array of patches to their front. The number of patches in that array is determined by the vision distance. A high vision increases the sigmoid frequency dependence even in a heavily clustered model environment (Fig. S7). If the bee-agents are only able to see the direct neighbor, the frequency dependence is reversed to favor the common species for low cluster values.

### **Search time limit**

If a bee-agent searches longer than a given search time limit unsuccessfully for a unvisited and preferred flower, the probability to switch preferences will increase by 10% with every additional step. The search limit was altered from 1 to 50 seconds in the sensitivity analysis. The results are similar to the effect of vision as they also change the probability to switch preferences. Higher search time limits lead to stronger negative frequency dependence benefiting the rare species. A search limit of 1 second reduces the dependency (Fig. S8).

### **Pollinator density**

Besides the expected increase of absolute visits, a change of pollinator density has no effect on the outcome of the model at any cover or cluster values (Fig. S9).

## 4 Discussion

Frequency dependence can have far reaching consequences for the development and maintaining of biodiversity. Aim of this thesis is to study the existence of frequency dependence in a natural plant community, explore the kind of relationship and understand the underlying rules and drivers for frequency dependence with the help of an agent-based model. The results of the natural condition data are consistent with the simulation data: A distinct frequency dependence within the per-flower visitation rate (cf. fig. 1 and fig. 4A). The relationship is defined by a steep increase of visits within the first 20% frequency followed by a unproportional low gain of visits for every additional flower until the flower becomes exclusive and the per-flower visitation rate increases again. Additional simulations confirm the negative frequency dependence as outcome of the empirical based default values.

### Explaining negative frequency dependence

Previous research found positive FD for lab experiments and inconsistency in the few field experiments focusing on color morphs (review by Smithson 2001). However, the field data suggests a negative FD for at least four different rewarding flower species confirmed by the results from the foraging simulation. Where does the discrepancy of lab and field data comes from?

The sensitivity analysis of the ABM can give an explanation: If the reward function is increased to a refill within 10 ticks, the relationship is reversed to a positive frequency dependence and the rare species gets unproportionally few visits (Fig. S6). The curve is highly consistent with findings of Smithson and Macnair (1997) and Smithson and Macnair (1996) in their lab experiments. In their study design, artificial flowers were refilled after each foraging bout. Therefore, every bumble bee got a fresh set of equally rewarding flowers to forage on which is comparable to a high growth function in the ABM.

We know that pollinators more likely abandon flower constancy if they experience sequentially bad reward (Chittka et al., 1997; Goulson, 1994). If the reward is always high, pollinators have less incentive to go on exploratory visits to the rare species as the abundant type is easy to find and sufficient rewarding. Hence it can be assumed that negative frequency dependent selection does not exclusively apply for non-rewarding species but also for flowering communities with varying or intermediate to low reward. Positive frequency dependence in pollination might be only possible for highly rewarding or artificial systems. If negative frequency dependence is in fact found for a variety of rewarding flowers, I agree with Eckhart et al. (2006) that frequency dependence might be more important in the development and conservation of diversity than previously recognized. More research, especially on natural field conditions, is needed to confirm this hypothesis.

### Cover and Cluster as important factors

The model reveals two drivers for frequency dependence: The higher the floral cover, the stronger the frequency dependence and the bigger the clusters, the lower the frequency dependence (Fig. 4E-H). Floral density is known to influence visitation rates, usually positive and with a saturating function (e.g. Rathcke 1983, Essenberg 2012, Bernhardt et al. 2008, Kunin 1997). Those findings are consistent with the functional response found for different cover values (Supplementary material, fig. S4a). If the cover is increasing, the absolute number of flowers rises also for the rare species. That makes it more likely for a bee-agent to find a flower before changing preference towards the common species even if foraging on the latter would be more efficient. Therefore, high cover causes the same effect as expanded vision distance or maximum search limit (cf. fig. S7 and fig. S8): The main reason of abandoning flower constancy becomes multiple visit of flowers with low reward. Furthermore, every visit to a rare species weights high in the per-flower visitation rate because the sum of visits is divided through the number of flowers. Even few "exploratory" visits can have great impact on the proportion.

The model shows that spatial agglomeration of flowers can lead to a more efficient foraging (more visits per time unit), less FD and a higher quality of visits due to compatible pollen deposits. If flowers are evenly distributed, many short search and flight times apply. An intermediate cluster level is easy to exploit by a pollinator whereas the flight and search times can be very long in between few big clusters, especially for low floral densities (Supplementary material, fig. S4b). It was already suggested by Epperson and Clegg (1987) that spatial agglomeration of flowers decreases frequency dependence. In the model, a similar effect compared to low cover takes place: If flowers are agglomerated at few places, they are more difficult to find for a bee-agent with limited vision, they

affect the pollinators perception of frequency. They will change preferences due to long search times and forage efficiently on the next best cluster.

### Requirements for successful pollination

Optimal visitation rate is gained at low frequency with high cover and low cluster values. However, those visits might not be the best quality if the pollination per visit ratio is comparatively low (Fig. 5a,d). The ratio can be seen as index for flower constancy: If the majority of visits lead even for a small pollen-carryover value to a successful pollination the bee-agents behave strongly after the theory of constancy (Montgomery, 2009). If the cover is high, bee-agents will keep their constancy also for rare species because they are abundant enough. If the agglomeration of flowers is high, bee-agents exploit this cluster before leaving for the next. Every visit within a cluster of flowers of the same species is counted as successful pollination and can lead to a high visit quality even if the cover is low (cf. Jakobsson et al. 2009)

Therefore it would be optimal for rare flowers to stand in clusters of flowers if the cover is low to get sufficient pollination. If the cover is high the spatial distribution plays a minor role for the visit quality.

### Frequency dependent sum of visits to the flower community

Additionally to individual frequency dependence, I analyzed the impact of species partitioning on frequency dependent visitation in the system as whole. Unfortunately, this part of frequency lacks completely in previous research.

If the cover is very low, most visits can be gained if one species is exclusive. Co-flowering will lead to longer search times and less overall visits (u-shape for 5% cover in fig. 6a). For higher cover, the frequency dependence shows a fourth-degree polynomial relationship. If one species is rare at 5-20%, some bee-agents have at least exploratory visits to the rare species and spend inefficient time searching, the total visitation number drops to a minimum. If species are even distributed the pollinators forage on both species in equal amounts. This is the most efficient status for the overall ecosystem, especially for high covers or spatial agglomeration.

A higher spatial agglomeration weakens the frequency effect but will also reduce the total visits. If flowers are evenly and random distributed, the bee-agent has many small search times intermittent by collecting reward on a single flower and continue foraging. Rare flowers can be found comparatively easy if they are spread over the whole meadow and flower constancy will be kept even if it is highly inefficient. If the clusters of flowers are bigger, bee-agents will not find rare flowers that easily because they might occur only in a single cluster on the meadow. The bee-agent will switch to the common flower, the minimum at very uneven distribution disappears and the relationship becomes slightly hump-shaped (Fig. 6b,c).

The outcome of the ABM indicates that balanced frequency for high cover and very uneven frequency for low cover results in a maximum of overall visits favoring both the pollinators and the co-flowering plants. An intermediate degree of clustering also improves the absolute number of visits and frequency gets less important. These findings should be verified by manipulated field experiments. Natural conditions data like sampled in the Jena Experiment are not suitable for this purpose because every plot contains more than two co-flowering species with unequal attractiveness.

### Limitations of the study design and research suggestions

Even though modeling can be an excellent tool to understand and interpret ecological data, some questions evolve comparing the data collected in the Jena Experiment and the foraging model. Floral cover is an important factor in the outcome of the model. It influences not only the absolute number of visits but also the intensity of frequency dependence. But it was removed in the model selection as it was no factor of explanatory power to the per-flower visitation data. Reason could lie in the sampling design. Data was only observed from plots with an intermediate cover, no extremes were taken into account. In total, there were only five values for cover in the final analysis. Also all cover values are estimations, no exact measurements. Another drawback are the lack of data for cluster values and pollination success. The experimental design and time restraints made it impossible to take more predictors into account. The data collected in Jena shows drastic differences in attractiveness of the focal species and frequency dependence was found to be subject to each species. Therefore I strongly suggest research on a

variety on species, both rewarding and unrewarding in natural occurring flower communities and manipulated two-species systems. Necessary to validate further results of the ABM would be a supplementary study with varying frequency, cover and cluster values of only two co-flowering species. Either under natural conditions where manipulation is possible (eg. Eckhart et al. 2006; Essenberg 2012) or with potted plants (Epperson and Clegg, 1987).

#### **What else? (Not yet included)**

- Species Richness is not important (thrown out in the model selection). Why? Interesting would be a similarity index how different the other flowers are and what insects they attract, not how many. Or simpson index talking the abundance into account.

-

## **5 Conclusions**

In conclusion, this study shows for the first time that frequency dependent selection exists in natural flowering communities for a broad range of flowers, not only for color morphs. Also, a combination of methods is exceptionally helpful to understand underlying drivers. The output of the agent-based foraging model confirms the results of the field data and fills the knowledge gap of previous research: Positive frequency dependence proved multiple times in lab experiments is likely due to very high rewards. Negative frequency dependence is therefore not exclusive to non-rewarding morphs but takes effect also for common rewarding species if the reward is not exceptionally high. Patterns of frequency dependence can therefore change across space and time, especially because the model revealed floral cover as FD-increasing and agglomeration of flowers FD-reducing factor.

Those findings are important for our understanding of the evolution and conservation of diversity. Negative FD, thus if rare flowers have an advantage in pollinator visits, might be an important factor in the evolution not only floral polymorphisms but diversity as such.

Further research is necessary to validate the role of floral cover and cluster for FD. A controlled field experiments including measurements of floral reward and pollination success could be a suitable approach. Based on the findings, I also recommend the connection of modeling, field and lab work. Most research is only done in one of those three approaches, cross-validation is often missing completely. It could be gained a great deal of knowledge by establishing interdisciplinary working groups of field ecologists and environmental modeling experts.

#### What else? (Nor yet included)

- POC
- Best for ecosystem and bees (most visits, most efficiency): extreme or balanced frequency, high cover, intermediate cluster

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## 6 Appendix

Table 1: Per-flower visitation rates (mean  $\pm$  SD) for all focal flower species per 15 minute observation. *Geranium pratense* and *Onobrychis viciifolia* are significantly different from the other three species (pairwise t-test,  $p < 0.001$ ). Within the two groups, there is no significant difference between the species.

<b>Short</b>	<b>Species</b>	<b>Family</b>	<b>Visitation Rate (Mean)</b>	$\pm$ <b>SD</b>
Ger	<i>Geranium pratense</i>	Geraniaceae	3.05	1.5
Lat	<i>Lathyrus pratensis</i>	Fabaceae	0.57	0.53
Lot	<i>Lotus corniculatus</i>	Fabaceae	0.30	0.36
Ono	<i>Onobrychis viciifolia</i>	Fabaceae	3.60	2.5
TP	<i>Trifolium pratense</i>	Fabaceae	0.16	0.23

Table 2: Results of the linear mixed effect model with per-flower visitation rate as explanatory variable. Floral cover and species richness were not relevant predictors for the model and therefore removed in the model selection process (denDF = 191,  $R^2 = 0.53$ ,  $n = 385$ )

<b>Response Variable</b>	<b>Explanatory Variables</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>F-value</b>	<b>P</b>
Per-flower visitation rate	Species	4	130.9	< 0.0001
	Frequency	1	49.3	< 0.0001
	Frequency <sup>2</sup>	1	13.2	0.0026
	Frequency <sup>3</sup>	1	5.8	0.8145
	Frequency x Species	4	5.2	0.0005
	Frequency <sup>2</sup> x Species	4	3.4	0.0097
	Frequency <sup>3</sup> x Species	4	3.4	0.0101

## Visitation Rate Depending on Frequency

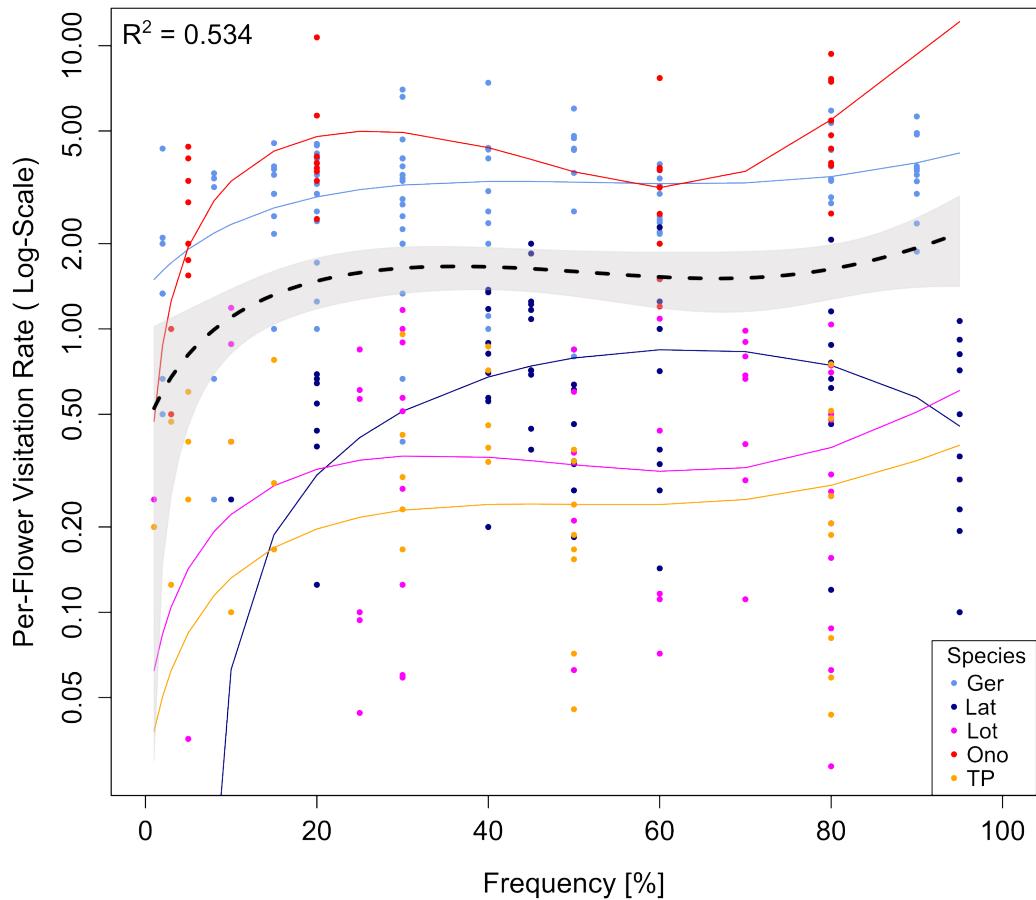


Figure 1: Per-flower visitation rates of the five focal species over different frequencies. Each point represents one observation of 15 minutes. The y-axis is plotted on a log scale due to the divergence in attractiveness of the focal species. The linear mixed effect model with Subplot nested in Plot as random factor show a sigmoidal frequency dependence for all species but *Lathyrus pratensis*. Floral cover and species richness were dropped as explanatory variables in the model selection process.  $R^2$  was calculated with the "r.squaredGLMM"-function of the MuMin-Package (Barton, 2014)

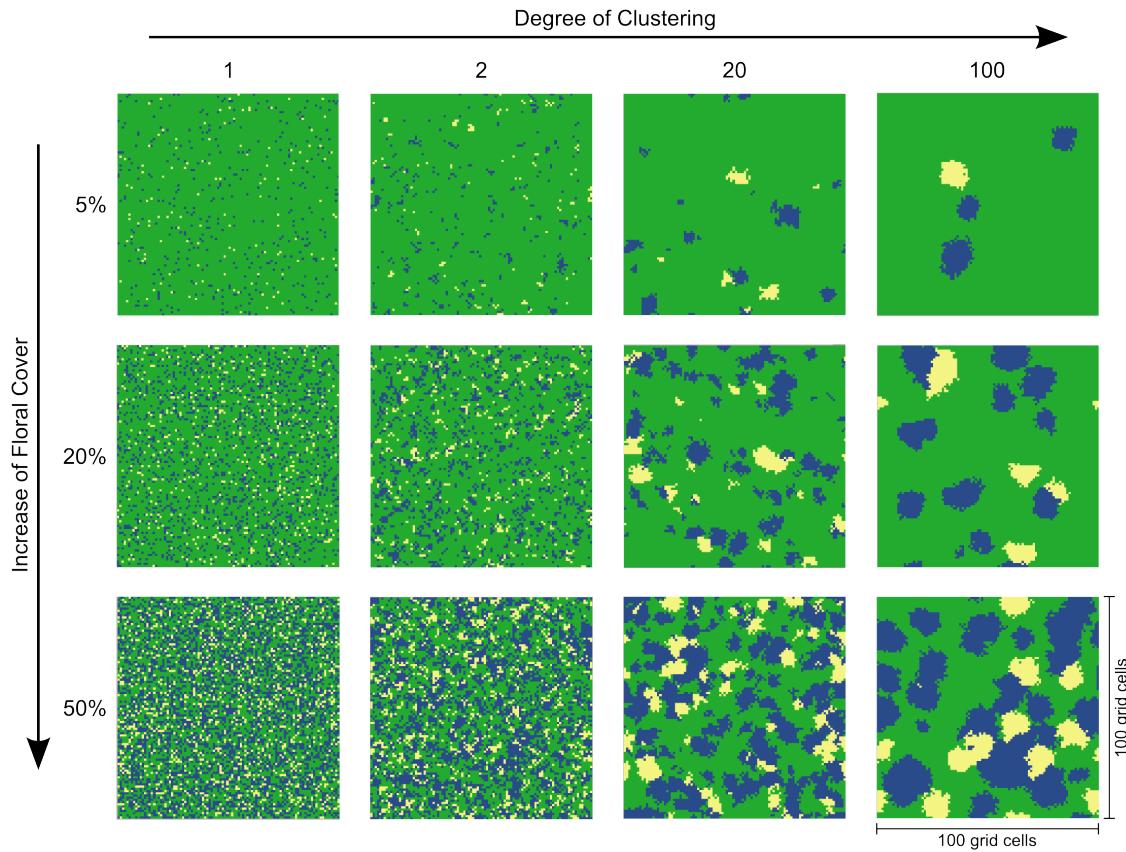


Figure 2: Exemplary model environment setups with increasing floral cover and degree of clustering. The cover expresses the percentage of patches containing a flower ( $\sum_{\text{patches}} = 10\,000$ ). The cluster number equals the average amount of flowers per cluster. Flowers are randomly assigned to the clusters to achieve a more natural, uneven distribution.

Table 3: Parameter values used for the main and sensitivity analysis. Only general parameters were changed in the main analysis, whereas the sensitivity analysis also directly influences the behavior of the bee-agents. Within the main analysis, each combination was run 20 times for 1000 ticks, that makes a total of 110,400 runs in the main analysis and 16,560 runs for each parameter of the sensitivity analysis.

Parameter	Description	Values
<b>MAIN ANALYSIS</b>		
Frequency	Proportion of species A on all flowers	0-100% (5%-steps)
Flower cover	Proportion of patches being flowers	5, 10, 20, 50 %
Degree of clustering	Average number of flowers per cluster	1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 50, 75, 100
Pollen-carryover rate	Number of visits within a successful pollination is possible	1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 16
<b>SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS</b>		
Reward function	Increase of reward per flower and second	0, 0.00004, 0.001, 0.1 J/sec
Vision distance	Max. range of patches within a bee-agent can detect flowers	1, 6, 20, 50 patches
Search time	Number of seconds a bee-agent searches before probability of switching flowers increases	1, 5, 20, 50 sec
Pollinator density	Number of bee-agents on the meadow	5, 10, 20, 50 bees

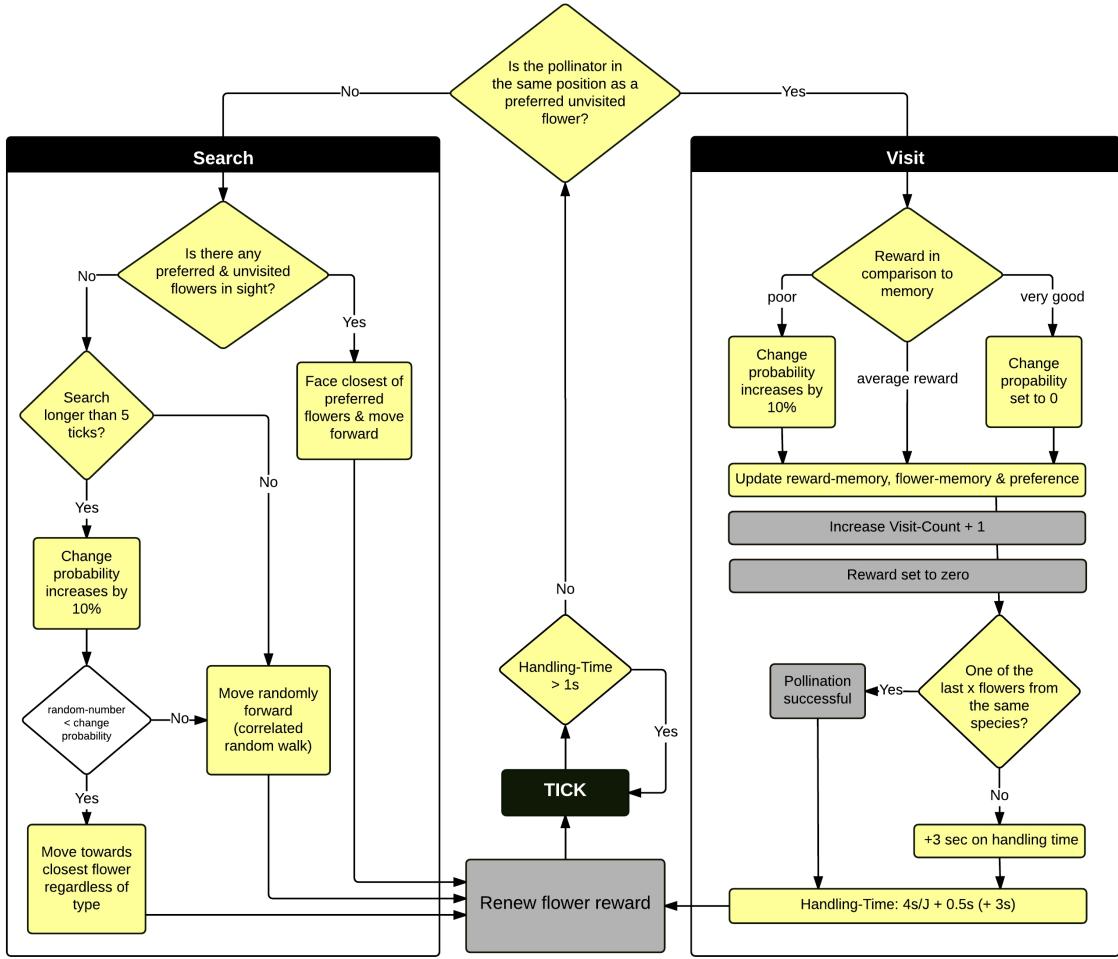


Figure 3: Flowchart describing the behavior rules for the bee-agents within the agent-based model. Every bee-agent can either search for a preferred flower or visit one. While searching, a bee-agent can remember the location of the last four visited flowers to avoid double-encountering. If there is no flower in sight after 5 seconds of correlated random walk (CRW), the probability that it will encounter the next available flower despite its type increases by 10% per additional time step. When a bee-agent visits a flower it takes all reward within a reward-dependent handling time and compares the amount with its memory. If the reward is low, the agent is more likely to visit the other flower type next time. The maximum of visits within a successful pollination is possible is determined by the pollen carryover rate.

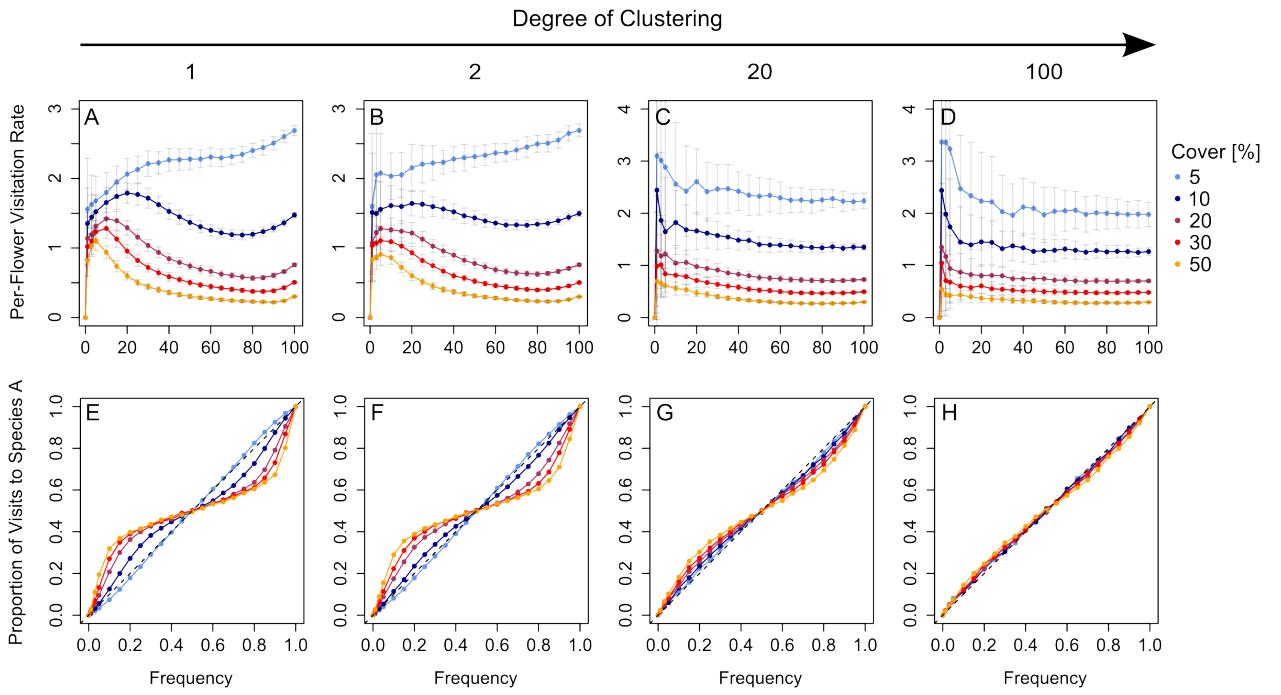


Figure 4: The main analysis of the agent-based model confirm the findings of the linear mixed effect model of the field data: The per-flower visitation rate shows a clear frequency dependence with a cubic relationship. Visitation rates increase within the first 10-20% of frequency towards a maximum. For intermediate frequencies is the increase of flowers not proportional with additional visits. The per-flower visitation rate only increases again towards exclusiveness of the species. The effect is stronger for higher floral cover (2a-d). Increase in clustering reduces the frequency dependence (1d,2d).

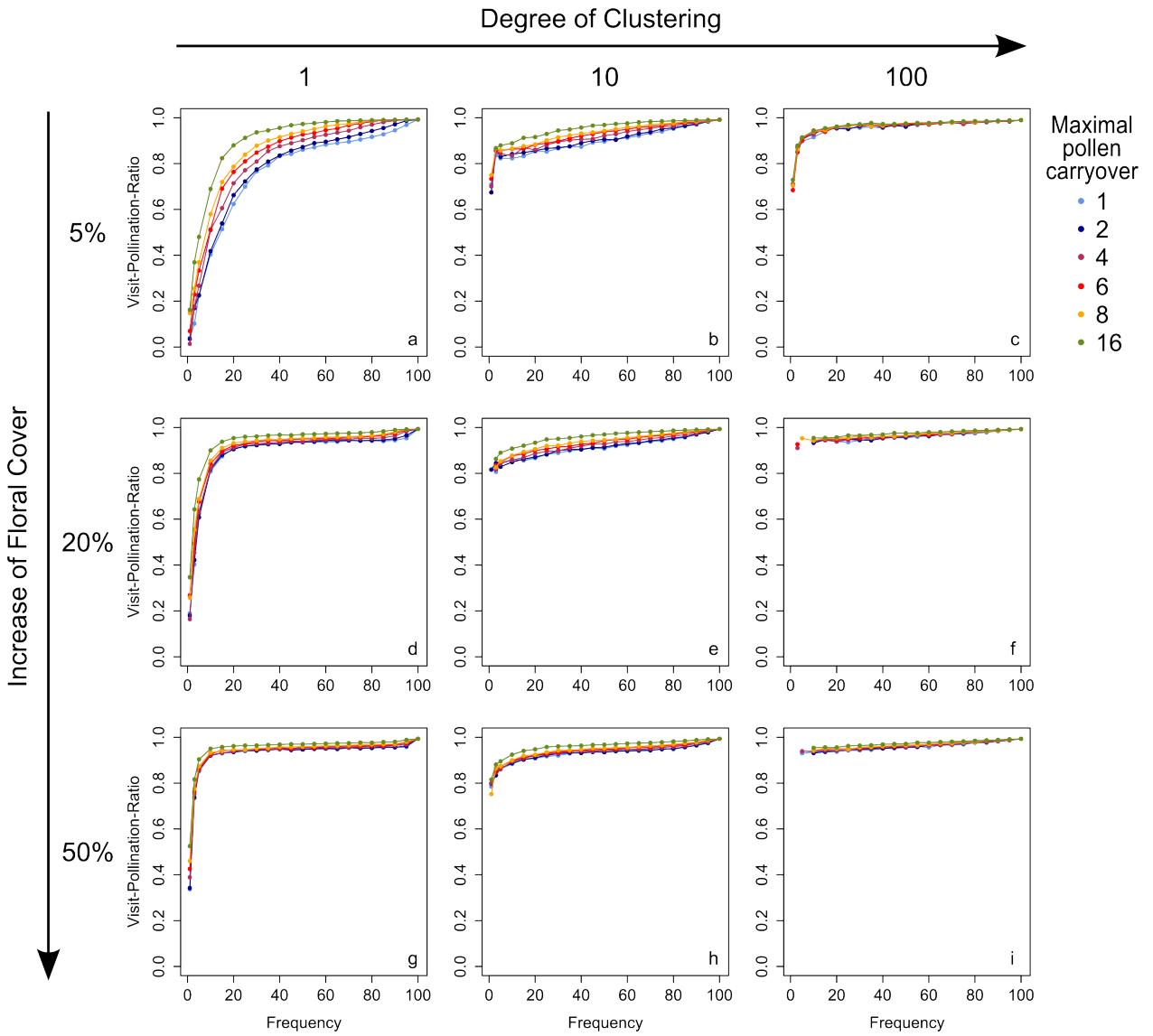


Figure 5: The pollen-carryover rate defines the maximum number of visits within a successful pollination is possible. With a pollen-carryover rate of one, the pollen can only be carried to the next flower. Therefore, the ratio of successful pollinations per visit can be seen as indicator for flower constancy (Montgomery, 2009). A high pollen-carryover rate is only important for a low cover and no-cluster environment. With increasing cover and cluster, the ratio becomes steeper for low frequencies which stands for more qualitative visits.

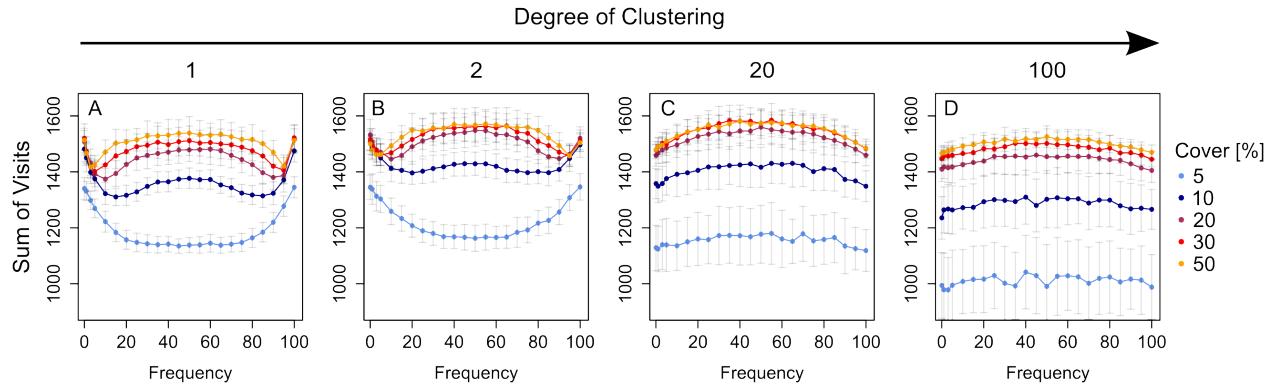


Figure 6: Summed visits to both species show a frequency dependence for low cluster values. Depending on the floral cover it is quadratic or a fourth-degree polynomial relationship. Maximum of visits (maximal efficiency) is achieved for very unequal or very equal frequencies. If one species is rare, the sum of visits drop because some bee-agents forage inefficiently on the rare species, having long flight and searching times. Clustering reduces the frequency dependence but also decreases the absolute number of visits and increases the variance (grey error bars).

Table S1: List of the focal species observed in the natural condition experiment within the area of the Jena Experiment. Species had to flower in at least five plots with different frequency values.

Short	Name	German Name	Order	Family	Color
Ger	<i>Geranium pratense</i>	Wiesen-Storzschnabel	Geraniales	Geraniaceae	Purple
Lat	<i>Lathyrus pratensis</i>	Wiesen-Platterbse	Fabales	Fabaceae	Yellow
Lot	<i>Lathyrus pratensis</i>	Gewöhnliche Hornklee	Fabales	Fabaceae	Yellow
Ono	<i>Onobrychis viciifolia</i>	Saat-Esparsette	Fabales	Fabaceae	pink+white
TP	<i>Trifolium pratense</i>	Wiesen-Klee	Fabales	Fabaceae	Purple

## Supplementary Material

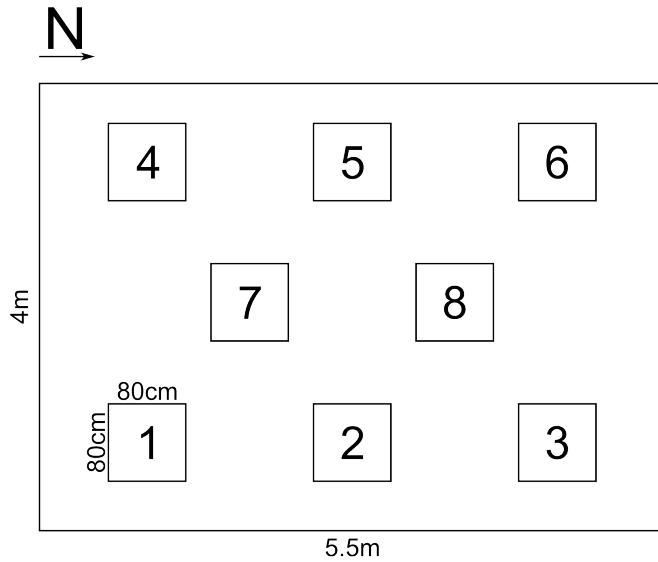


Figure S1: The distribution of subplots within the old invasion plots.

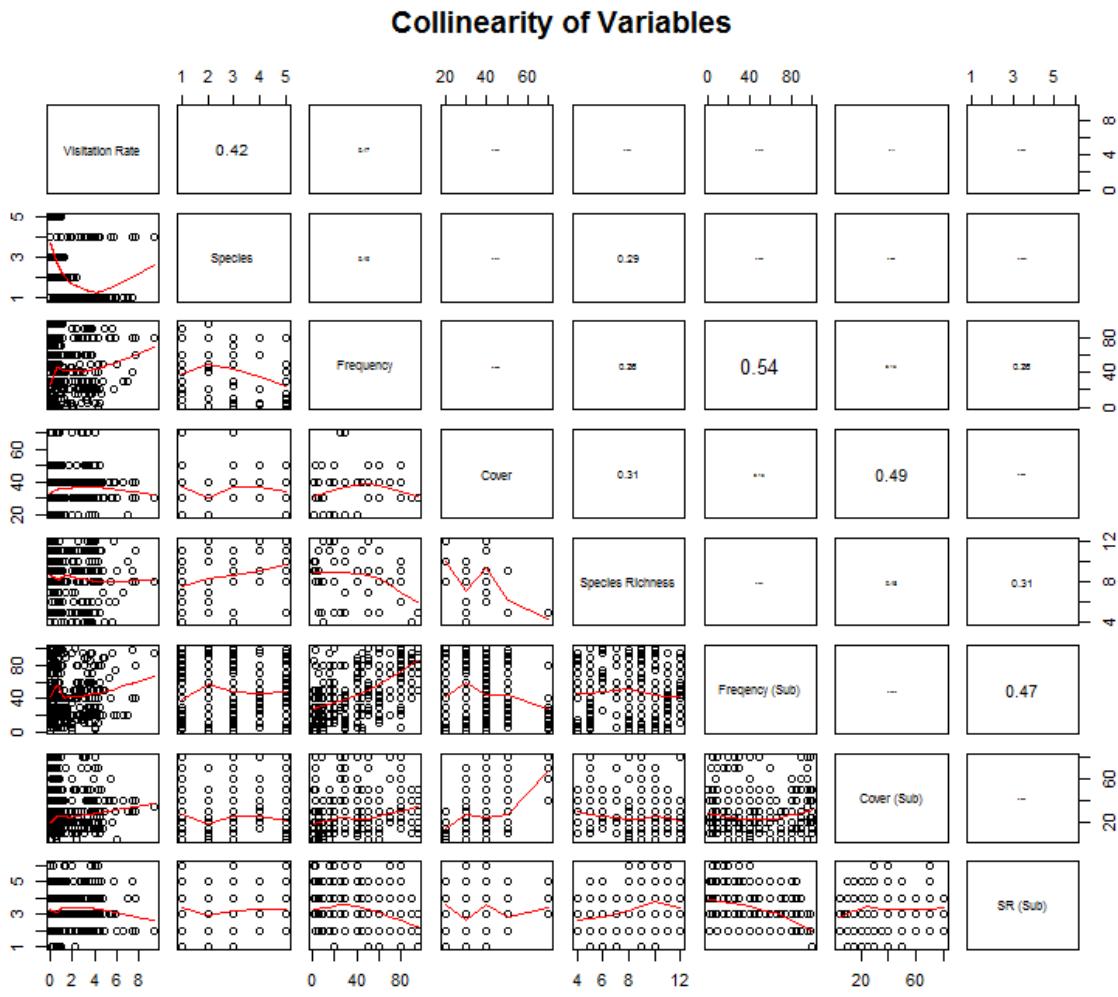


Figure S2: Pairwise correlation of Visitation rate (response variable), species, frequency, floral cover and species richness on plot and subplot-level. The upper panels contain Pearson correlation coefficients with its size proportional to its value. Parameters correlate on the plot and subplot level but show no strong correlation not among each other.

Table S2: Variance inflation factors (VIF) for the full set of variables. Values are calculated by the "corvif"-function from R-package AED. All values are well below three indicating no collinearity (see Zuur et al. (2007)).

Variable	GVIF
Visitation Rate	1.26
Species	1.36
Frequency	1.63
Floral Cover	1.46
Species Richness	1.45
Frequency (Subplot)	1.84
Floral Cover (Subplot)	1.37
Species Richness (Subplot)	1.48

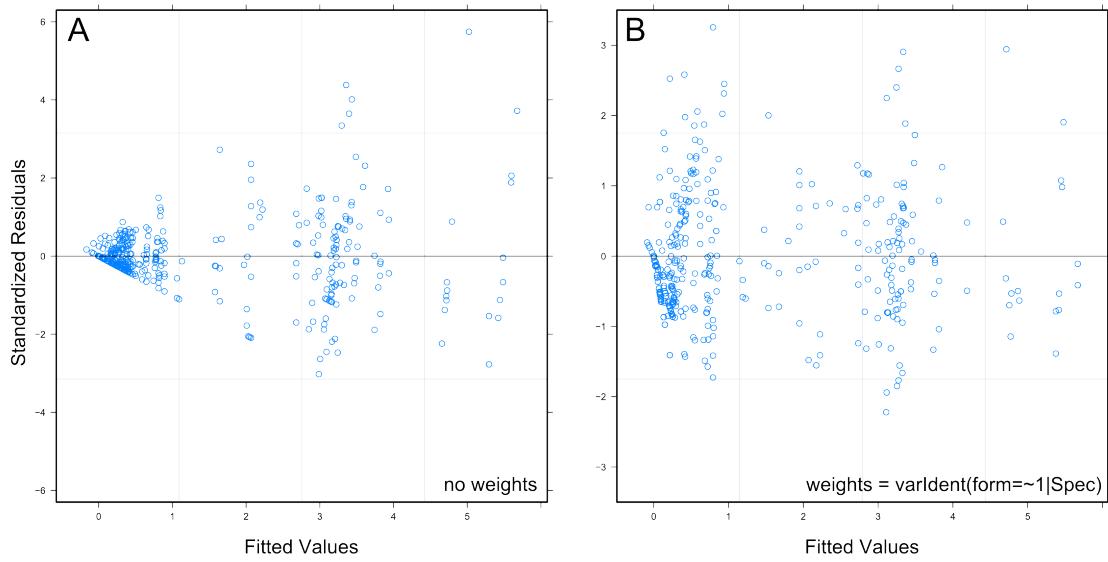


Figure S3: Standardized residuals plotted against fitted values for the final mixed effect model with and without applied weighting. A) Without weighting, the residuals show strong pattern of heteroscedasticity. B) The weighting allows different variance per species. The final model is significantly better with weighting ( $L=393.32$ ,  $df= 4$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ )

Table S3: Extended output from the linear mixed effect model. Floral cover and species richness were removed in the model selection

<b>Explanatory Variables</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	$\pm$ SE	<b>P</b>
Intercept (Ger)	1.41	0.49	0.0048
Lat	-1.58	0.58	0.0069
Lot	-1.38	0.51	0.0075
Ono	-1.31	1.06	0.2182
TP	-1.39	0.5	0.0060
Frequency	0.11	0.05	0.0147
Frequency <sup>2</sup>	-0.002	< 0.01	0.0699
Frequency <sup>3</sup>	< 0.01	< 0.01	0.1174
Frequency x Lat	-0.09	0.05	0.0925
Frequency x Lot	-0.09	0.05	0.0687
Frequency x Ono	0.32	0.14	0.0183
Frequency x TP	-0.1	0.05	0.0425
Frequency <sup>2</sup> x Lat	< 0.01	< 0.01	0.1013
Frequency <sup>2</sup> x Lot	< 0.01	< 0.01	0.2053
Frequency <sup>2</sup> x Ono	-0.01	< 0.01	0.0113
Frequency <sup>2</sup> x TP	< 0.01	< 0.01	0.1479
Frequency <sup>3</sup> x Lat	> -0.01	< 0.01	0.0966
Frequency <sup>3</sup> x Lot	> -0.01	< 0.01	0.2996
Frequency <sup>3</sup> x Ono	< 0.01	< 0.01	0.0086
Frequency <sup>3</sup> x TP	> -0.01	< 0.01	0.2283

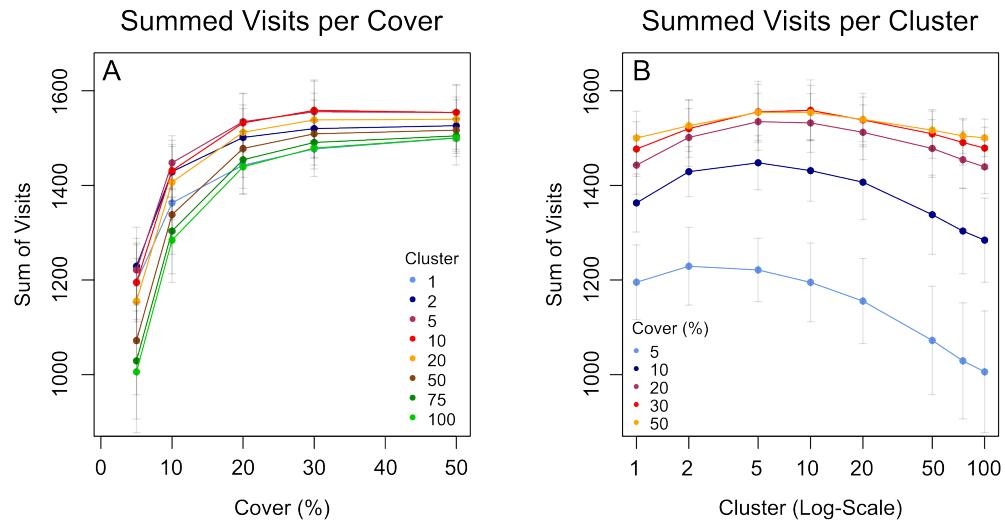


Figure S4: Frequency independent influence of floral cover and degree of flower agglomeration on the summed visits within one simulation run. Cover strongly influences the number of visits as it reduces the flight and search time. Plot A shows a saturated relationship for all cluster values. This matches the Hollings type II functional response. B) The degree of clustering also determines the sum of visits in a hump-shaped function. The maximum (depending on the cover) lays between 5 and 10 flowers per cluster. A small agglomeration of flowers reduces search times but keeps the next patch within short distance. The bigger the cluster, the more difficult to find the next one.

Table S4: The full set of parameters and default values used in the model.

Parameter	Description	NetLogo-Type	Type	Value	Reference
<b>SETUP PARAMETERS:</b>					
area	"world" in NetLogo, defined by a grid of cells called patches	integer	100x100		Kunin 1991 in Kunin and Iwasa 1996
patch-size	Size of one grid-cell in NetLogo. Can be either a flower or grass	float	0.1m <sup>2</sup>		0.09-0.17 (Essenberg, 2012)
tick	One time-unit in NetLogo	integer	1s		Waddington 1980
flower-cover	Proportion of grid cells containing a flower	global			Chittka et al. 1997; Kunin 1993
frequency	Proportion of flowers which are species A ( $Freq_A = 100 - Freq_B$ )	global			Goulson 2000, see Goulson 1999 for review
cluster-number	Average number of flowers per cluster	global			Dyer et al. 2008; Werthlen et al. 2008
number-bees	Initial number of pollinators in the model	global			Ne'eman and Kevan 2001
<b>BEHAVIORAL PARAMETERS:</b>					
search-speed	Distance a pollinator can move per tick	bees-own	integer	0.1m /sec	Kunin 1991 in Kunin and Iwasa 1996
stdev-angle	Standard deviation for the normal distribution used in the CRW	global	integer	30	0.09-0.17 (Essenberg, 2012)
flightsteps-until-change	Seconds of unsuccessful search before the preference changes	bees-own	integer	5s (= 5 ticks)	Waddington 1980
length-memory	How many flowers can a bee remember to avoid double-visiting.	bees-own	integer	4	Chittka et al. 1997; Kunin 1993
view	Value for the radius of grid-cells a pollinator can see (cone-view of 180°)	bees-own	integer	0.7m (= 6 grid-cells)	Goulson 2000, see Goulson 1999 for review
array	Array of all suitable flowers (referred, non-visited) in sight of the pollinator	bees-own	Array		Dyer et al. 2008; Werthlen et al. 2008
reward-function	How much reward is regrowing per second	flowers-own	float	0.00004 J/s	Ne'eman and Kevan 2001
handling-time	The time a pollinator needs for exploiting the floral reward	bees-own	integer	reward * 4s + 0.5s (+ 3s)	Roubik 1992 in Kunin and Iwasa 1996
reward	Reward in Joule the flower has to offer.	flowers-own	float	reward(max) = 1J	Kunin 1991 in Kunin and Iwasa 1996
pollen carry-over rate	Exploited with each visit, renewed over time	flowers-own	integer	1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 16	Benedi et al. 2012
flower-memory	Max. number of visits within a successful pollination is possible	bees-own	string	4	see Goulson 1999 for review
reward-memory	A list of flower-locations	bees-own	string	4	
change-prob	A list of the last gained rewards	bees-own	float		
choice	Probability to change the preferred flower type.	bees-own	boolean		
	Increases with low reward and long search times				
	Current flower choice for the pollinator (for constancy)				

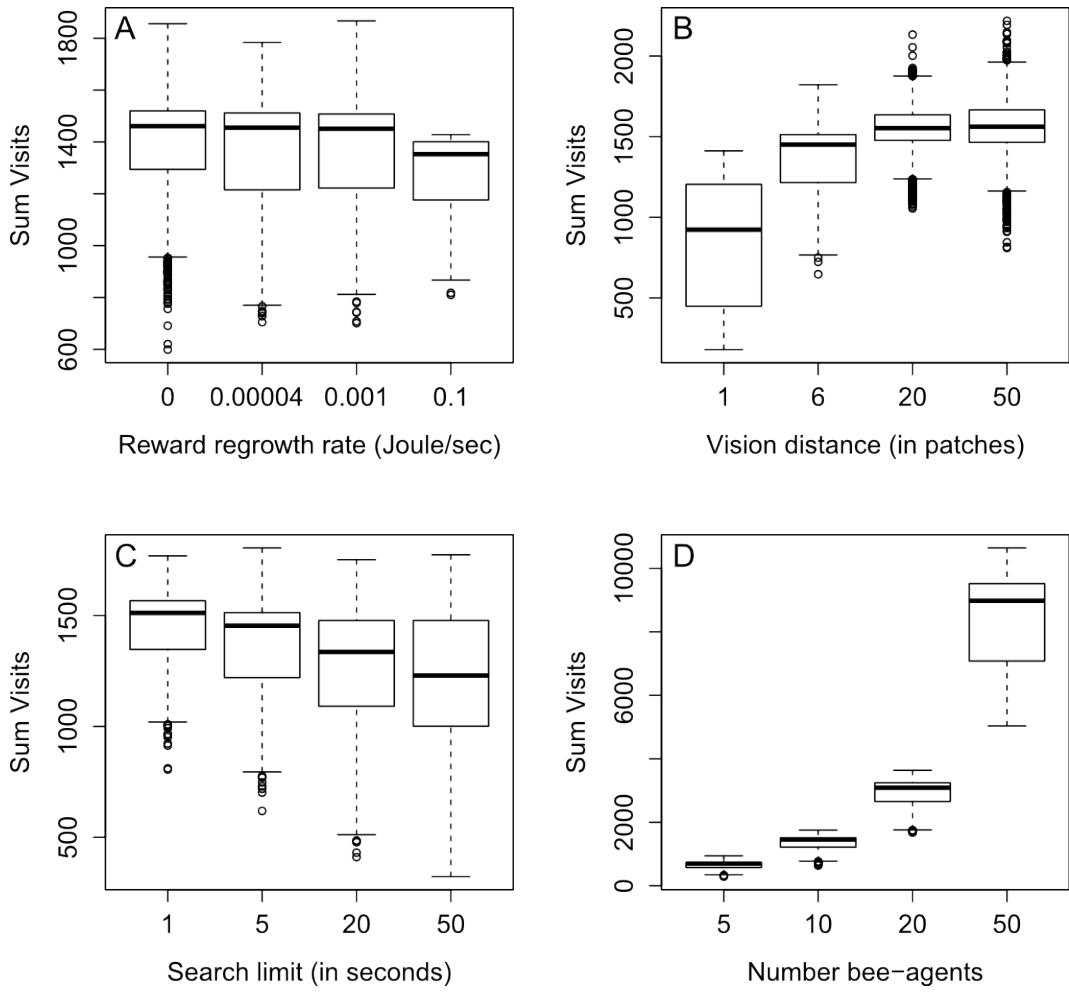


Figure S5: The influence of reward regrowth, vision, search limit and number of bee-agents on the total visits within a 1000 tick simulation run. A) Only an unnatural high reward regrowth has a small negative influence on the visits. B) Bee-agents with a far field of view can detect flowers faster, move in a direct way towards them and be therefore more efficient. However, the curve is saturated at a view of 20 patches. C) An increase in search time limit decreases the sum of visits and spread the variance. Bees-agents will keep searching for rare flowers instead of switching to the common species. D) As assumed, more bees lead to more visits.

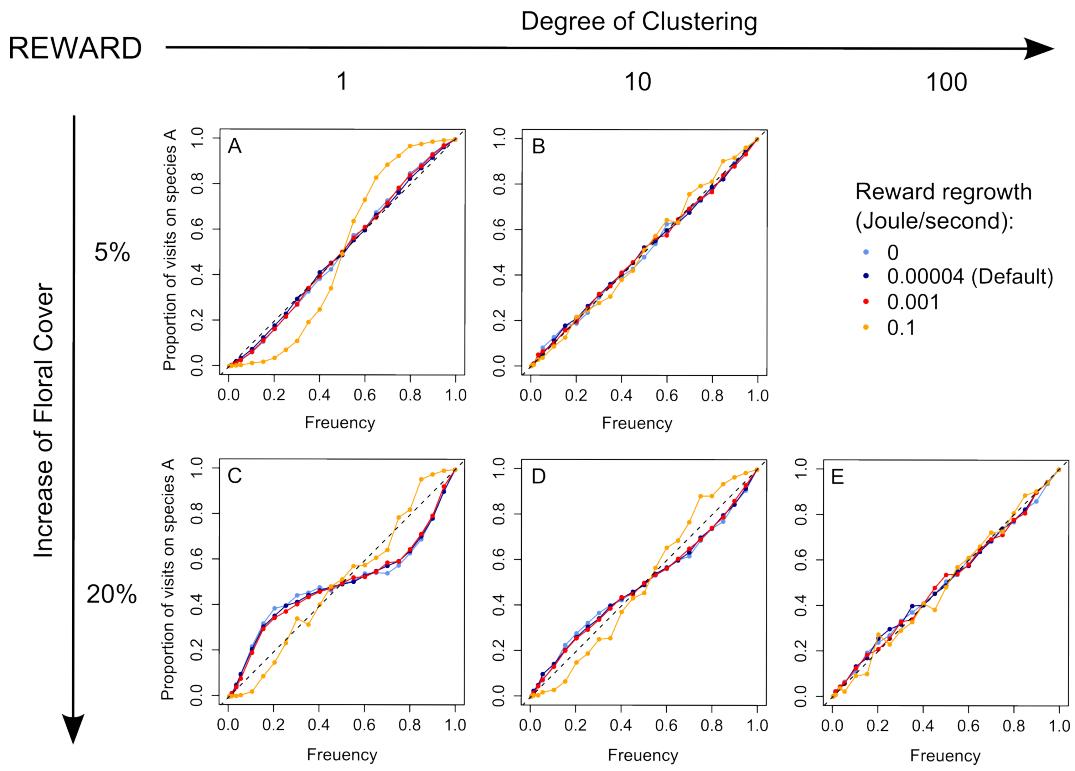
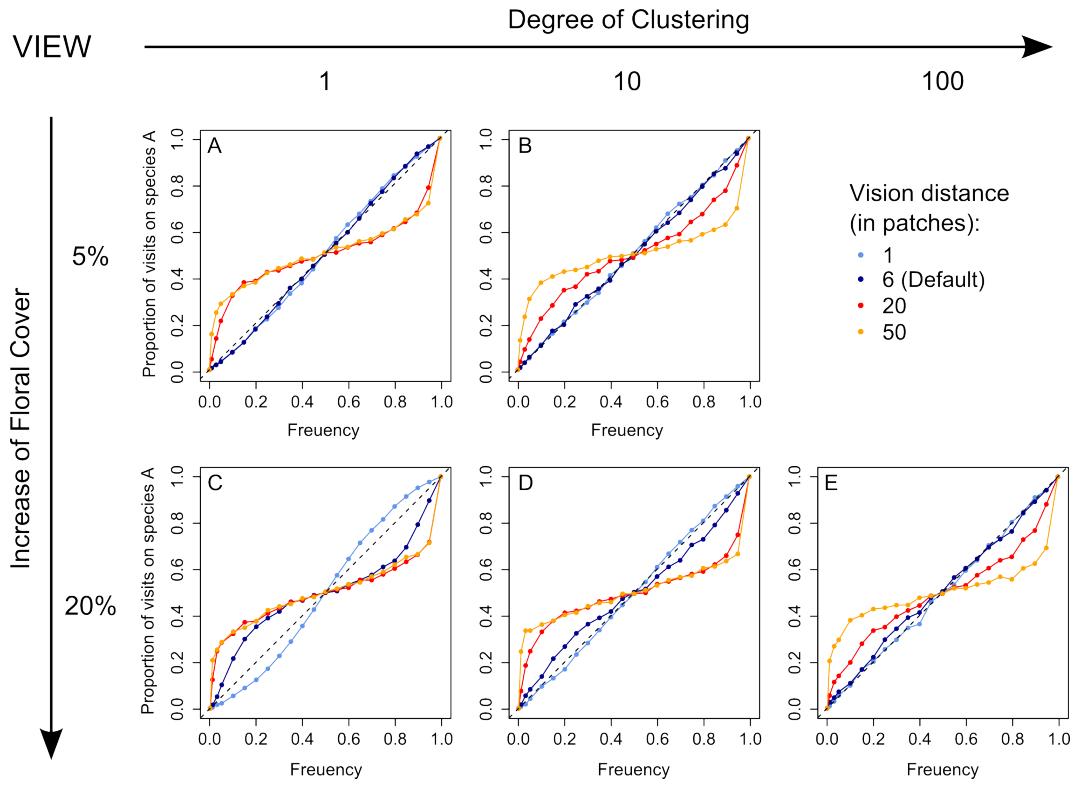


Figure S6: Outcome of the model if the reward regrowth function is changed to 0, 0.004, 0.001 and 0.1 Joules per second. Only the unnatural high reward function (complete regrowth after 10 seconds) has an influence on the frequency dependence: the bee-agents have no more reason to change preference due to bad reward gained. This favors the more common species as shown in the opposite curving for no-cluster environments. A lower regrowth rate has no effect.



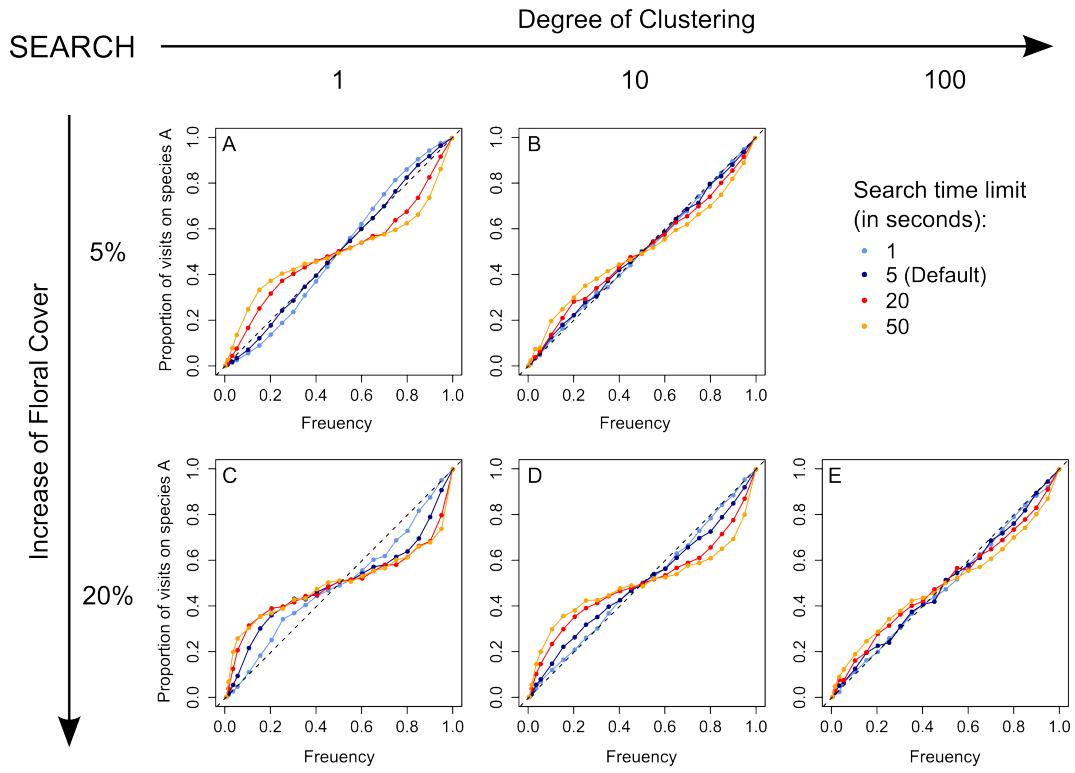


Figure S8: Sensitivity analysis for search limits of 1, 5, 20 and 50 seconds. The search limit is the number of seconds within a bee-agent searches for a unvisited and preferred flower, moving around the meadow by a correlated random walk. After the search limit is reached, the probability to change its flower preference increases with every additional second of unsuccessful search. The search limit has a similar effect on the outcome of the model as the vision because it also influences the change probability. With a higher search time, the bee-agent continues searching instead of switching to the more abundant flower, the frequency dependence is increased. A higher cluster value weakens the effect.

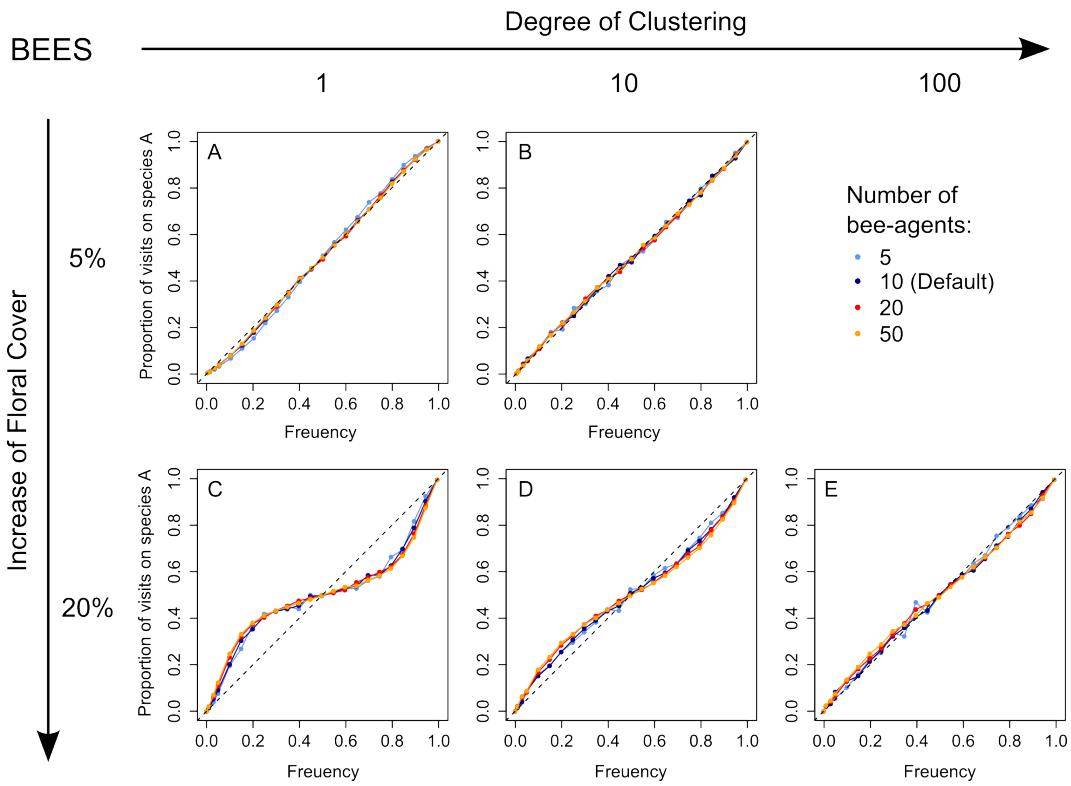


Figure S9: Results of the model for 5, 10, 20 and 50 bee-agents on the meadow. The proportion of visits does not change, only the absolute numbers. Therefore has the pollinator density no influence on the frequency dependence.